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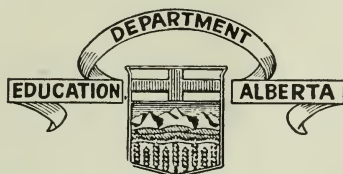


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Classroom Bulletin

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This Bulletin has been prepared for the use of teachers of Social Studies.

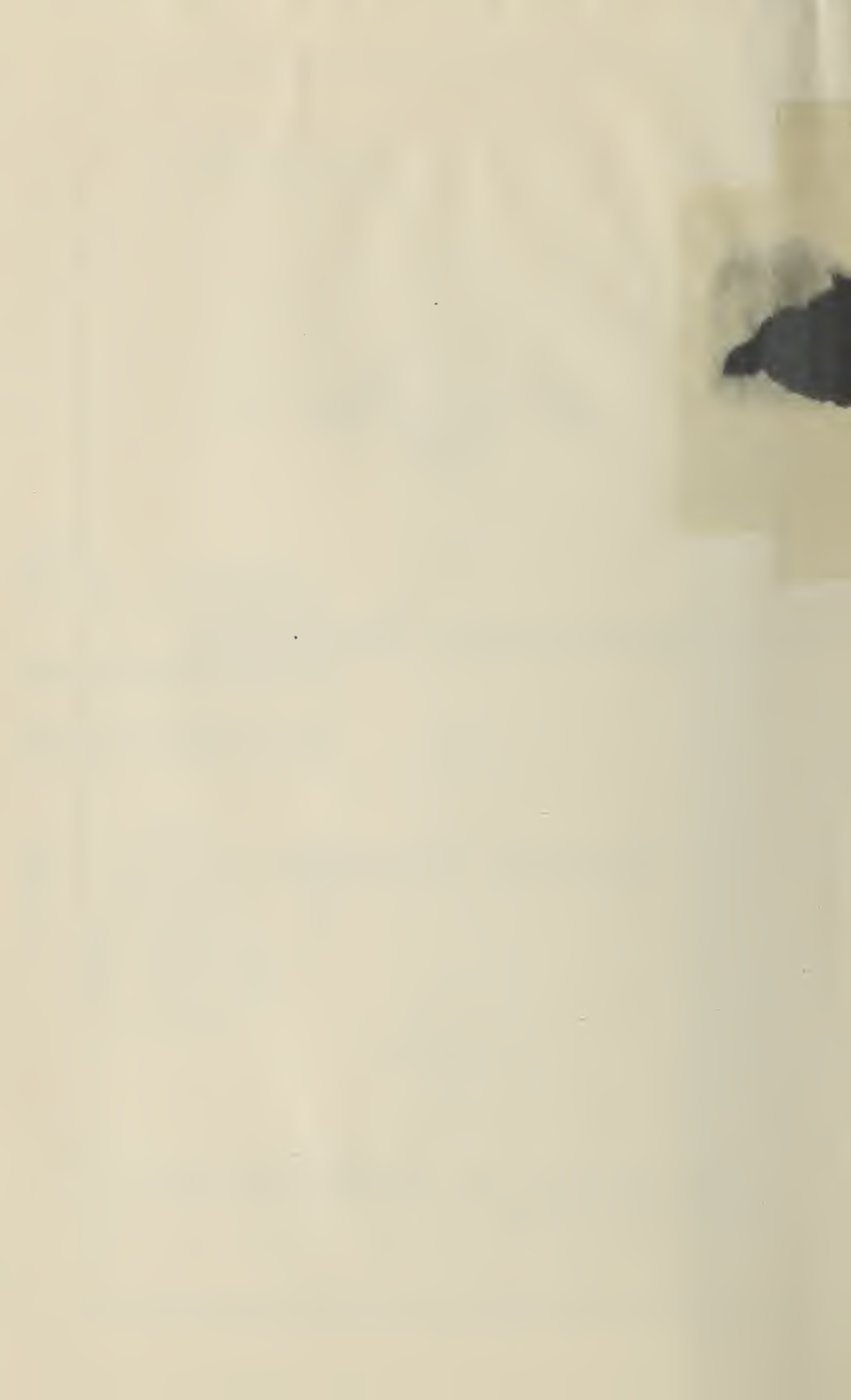



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THE UNITED NATIONS—JULY - NOVEMBER, 1946

On August 1st, 1946, the Secretary General of the United Nations, Mr. Trygve Lie, published the first annual report of the United Nations. Summing up the year's activities, Mr. Lie had to admit that while fundamental but undramatic work had been performed, there had been many delays, disappointments and discouragements. He pointed out that the world is in the midst of a gigantic post-war upheaval. The economic life of the world is dislocated. Millions are still homeless in devastated Europe. Political boundaries, forms of government and peace terms are still undecided. Domestic suffering and unrest have claimed public attention almost to the exclusion of international problems. Such conditions are inevitable, following the world-scale war we have recently come through. But the United Nations is no stronger than the collective will of the nations that support it. Of itself it can do nothing. It is a machinery through which the nations can operate.

The following outline summarizes the more important aspects of the United Nations' work during the period July to November, 1946.

The Atomic Energy Commission:

As the smoke billowed up into the stratosphere above Hiroshima, mankind realized that it was face to face with its most fateful problem, for upon effective control of this new force might depend the survival of civilization. The Atomic Energy Commission was set up by the United Nations to find the means of controlling this devastating weapon. The Commission held its first meeting in New York in June, 1946, with General A. G. L. McNaughton representing Canada. Its task was to make definite proposals:—

- (a) For extending between all nations the exchange of basic scientific information for peaceful ends:
- (b) For control of atomic energy to the extent necessary to ensure its use only for peaceful purposes:
- (c) For the elimination from national armaments of atomic bombs and of all other major weapons adaptable to mass production:
- (d) For effective safeguards by way of inspection and other means to protect complying States against the hazards of violations and evasions.

Mr. Baruch, the United States representative proposed the setting up of a world Atomic Development Authority outside the United Nations. This Authority would:—

- 1. Survey world supplies of uranium and thorium.
- 2. Control the plants dealing with these minerals.
- 3. Possess the exclusive right to conduct research in the field of atomic explosives.
- 4. Have the power to enter any country to inspect atomic plants.

The United States would turn over to this Authority all technical secrets of atomic bomb production and dispose of her stockpile of atomic bombs. If this Authority were to function fully it would mean the removal of the Big Five veto on atomic energy matters.

The Soviet Union, represented by Mr. A. A. Gromyko, presented a set of proposals which would:—

1. Forbid the manufacture of atomic weapons.
2. Require all atomic bombs to be destroyed.
3. Punish any country that disobeyed the rules.
4. Require all nations to sign the agreement on atomic energy.

Russia was opposed to an international authority having access to Russian mineral supplies and factories. She was also unwilling to relinquish her veto power.

While there is a wide difference in the approach of the United States and the Soviet Union to the problem of the atomic bomb, the plans offered are not incompatible. The Technical and Scientific Committee has reported that control of the technical process of atomic energy is feasible. Canada has already offered to supply full information to the U. N. on its uranium and thorium supplies.

International Refugee Organization:

UNRRA, which despite its name is not a part of the U. N., is to be replaced by an International Refugee Organization (I.R.O.). In 1943 UNRRA was set up as a temporary organization to look after the relief and rehabilitation of war-torn areas as they became liberated.

In each of the three years of its existence it has distributed about a billion dollar's worth of supplies. But UNRRA was not designed as an international soup-kitchen, simply to dole out food and machinery; rather, its affirmed purpose was to help needy nations to help themselves. Food was required at first; then the emphasis was on supplying seed and utensils. A considerable part of its work has necessarily also been in the fields of public health and displaced personnel.

UNRRA was created for an emergency which has lessened, though not ended. Seventy per cent of its cost has been borne by the U.S.A. At its fifth Council Session held in the deserted League of Nations buildings in Geneva early in August, Director-General LaGuardia proposed that UNRRA begin to wind-up its affairs in October.

The U.S.A., Britain and Canada recently decided that the peak of the famine period was over, and from now on each nation would have to pay for its own food. An International Emergency Food Council has been established at Washington to allocate supplies, but with no power to help finance purchases.

The I.R.O. is expected to do more than replace UNRRA, which was limited to relief and rehabilitation. The new organization is to be responsible for the resettlement of approximately

800,000 refugees who cannot be repatriated. Displaced persons, defined as those who were forced by the Axis powers to leave their homes or who were deported, will be encouraged and assisted (but not forced) to return to their countries of origin. Food, clothing and shelter may be provided for a period of ninety days during the rehabilitation process. No assistance is to be given to war criminals or traitors and nothing is to be done to prevent in any way their surrender and punishment. A rough estimate compiled by a Special Committee denotes that the agency's work will involve the fate of 100,000 refugees and displaced persons of European origin and 2,000,000 in the Far East.

World Health Organizations: (WHO)

Sixty-one nations, including Canada, have given their signatures to the constitution of a new World Health Organization. The basic principle of the organization is that "The health of all people is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security and is dependent upon the fullest co-operation of individuals and states." The members have pledged themselves to co-operate in the promotion and protection of the health of all people.

The new organization will carry out extensive research work in the field and in the laboratory on the prevention, treatment and control of disease. It aims to promote the improvement of nutrition, housing, sanitation, recreation, economic or working conditions and other aspects of hygiene and will generally promote co-operation among scientific and professional groups which contribute to the advancement of health. It will revise international nomenclatures of disease, of causes of death, and of public health practices and develop and establish international standards with respect to food and other products.

World Food Board:

One of the aims of the Food and Agriculture Organization is to ensure a good standard of nutrition, health and living for all peoples of the world. There has never been an adequate system of distribution, and a recent World Food Survey made by F. A. O. has enabled us to realize how serious the picture is in most countries.

The results of the survey are based on pre-war statistics covering 70 countries whose people make up about 90 per cent of the earth's population. According to the survey about half the world's population was undernourished, about one-sixth was surviving at a marginal level of nutrition, and somewhat less than a third was enjoying high-calorie diets. In many parts of the world due to the ravages of war, countries are still struggling to reach even the pre-war standard.

As an outcome of the survey, F. A. O. has proposed the establishment of a World Food Board, the functions of which would be to stabilize agricultural prices, establish a world reserve, help finance disposal of surpluses, and co-operate with organizations concerned with international credits. The proposal, the chief item discussed at the F. A. O. Copenhagen Conference, received

general approval from the delegates. Sir John Orr, Director-General, in introducing the proposed plan urged that the World Food Board include such international organizations as the Economic and Social Council, the International Bank and, when established, the International Trade Organization.

Trusteeship Council:

Under the League of Nations, which has now been dissolved, a Permanent Mandates Commission supervised all mandated territory, that is territory placed under the care of another country: i.e. Palestine was mandated to Britain until a satisfactory method of self-government could be agreed upon. With the dissolution of the League there remains no international body to carry on this work. The U. N. is now prepared to set up a Trusteeship Council which would continue the work of supervision performed under the League. The six countries holding mandated territory are Australia, Belgium, France, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the Union of South Africa. So far two trusteeship agreements have been forwarded to the U. N. by the French government for French Togoland and French Cameroons, African territories mandated to France under the League.

U. N.'s Five Official Languages:

Whenever the interpretation or translation machinery breaks down in an international organization, every one involved feels as if he were living in Babel. There is a sense of helplessness when language barriers spring up where none had been before. The barriers always exist, but so efficient are the methods of overcoming them that all the casual observer realizes is that conversation seems to take place in slow motion.

Translation, "verbatim reporting", and interpreting are all vital to the efficient functioning of an international organization, and it is on translation that the delegations and the Secretariat depend most heavily, since the written text of every document is absolutely essential and every word must be accurately construed.

At Geneva it was estimated that it took no less than three years to develop an average translator, and at least ten years for a translator to evolve into what is known to the profession as a "reviser"—a technical description of one who reviews others' translations for accuracy and style. A good translator can get through 600 to 1,000 words an hour, but if too much revision is needed his work is useless. Revisers find it easier to begin anew with the work under these circumstances. The profession assumes, however, that no translation, even if done by the most skilled, can be released without careful revision.

To an international organization good translators are indeed precious. There are few about, and even they, like other persons, age, retire, die or, saddest of all, quit the business.

The standards for translation set at Geneva were high. In the United Nations, which has the services only of the survivors of the Geneva fraternity, it may take several years to reach the

standards set by the League Secretariat, simply because the translating profession cannot expand its ranks swiftly enough to meet the increased demand.

Whereas the League had only two official languages to deal with (English and French), the United Nations has five: English and French (the "working languages" into which everything written and spoken must be translated) and Russian, Chinese and Spanish.

Each language has its peculiar problems. Russian, for example, is a language which has never heretofore had what the chief of the Russian section calls the "elaborate international terminology." French was for centuries the chief language of the diplomatic world.

There is one problem common to all five tongues. Some documents, from a lingual point of view, are badly written in the original language; meanings are frequently obscure and the phrases difficult to interpret. "When they are well written," says the chief of one of the sections, "translation is easy—it flows—but frequently we have to try to make the translation somewhat clearer than the original." This requires considerable judgment on the part of the translators, since they are obliged to adapt the language of a document to the mental processes of their readers by clarification and, on occasion, by expansion or contraction of the phrasing.

Colloquialisms cause even the most experienced of the fraternity to slip up. "Our heads in the clouds," particularly popular at San Francisco and in London, caused many to scurry for comparable colloquialisms in their own tongues. The Chinese found one which, translated back into English, means "staying among the hills" or "surrounded by the peaks of the mountains." "Walking into the fog" is expressed in Chinese as "the fog will cover your eyes."

Translating is a challenging profession. Even its most expert practitioners battle all the time for clarity and accuracy. The battle is never finally won because new problems constantly arise but most of the encounters are successful.

The Chief Chinese translator puts it this way, quoting one of the proverbs for which his native land is famous: "Just because it's difficult, that is where the talent shows," or, as the Greeks had it, "It is the difficult, not the easy things, that are worth doing."

New Members:

The 51 states that participated in the San Francisco Conference in 1945 became the original members of the U. N. But the U. N. Charter provides that membership is open to all peace-loving states which accept the obligations contained in the Charter and which in the judgment of the organization, are able and willing to carry out these obligations. So far nine small nations have applied for membership. They are: Afghanistan, Albania,

Eire, Iceland, Outer Mongolia, Portugal, Siam, Sweden, Trans-Jordan. Of these only Afghanistan, Iceland, Sweden and Siam have been approved by the Security Council. These four will now be considered by the General Assembly before they are finally admitted.

United Nations' Abbreviations:

FAO	—Food and Agriculture Organization.
ECITO	—European Central Inland Transport Organization.
IGC	—Inter-Governmental Committee on Refugees.
IRO	—International Refugee Organization.
ITO	—International Trade Organization.
ITU	—International Telecommunication Union.
PICAO	—Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization.
UNESCO	—United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
UPU	—Universal Postal Union.
WHO	—World Health Organization.

(For reference only).

The General Assembly, New York, October, 1946:

The General Assembly of the United Nations is now in session in the New York City Building at Flushing Meadows, New York.

The General Assembly is the central body of the United Nations; it has been called "The Town Meeting of the World"; it has been likened to a **"World Parliament."** But it is not **quite** like either of these because it has **no legislative powers.** Before its recommendations have the force of law they must be accepted by the governments of its Member countries and implemented in accordance with their constitutional procedures.

What then is the General Assembly, and what does it do? The General Assembly consists of all the Members of the United Nations. Each has an equal voice in its deliberations, for each Member has one vote—though it may send five representatives to the meetings of the Assembly—and decisions are taken by a majority of those present and voting. A two-thirds majority is required on important questions, such as recommendations concerning the maintenance of international peace and security, election of members of Councils, suspension and expulsion of Members, questions relating to the operation of the trusteeship system and budgetary questions. Other questions, including the determination of additional categories of questions to be classed as "important" are decided by a simple majority of those present and voting.

The General Assembly meets regularly once a year. This year its first session was divided into two parts, the first held in January and the second in October. Its meetings are held in public unless it decides that exceptional circumstances require that the meeting be held in private. The press, radio, films and other publicity media report its proceedings to the world. It must take account of public opinion. But there is one type of

subject which it may not discuss—matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state.

The General Assembly is essentially an advisory body which discusses all questions that concern the peace and welfare of the United Nations, and makes recommendations to the Security Council. It is in this Assembly that all nations, great and small, may air their grievances or make suggestions for better international relations. The General Assembly also elects six non-permanent members to the Security Council. All the important executive power of the United Nations is in the hands of the Security Council which is made up of representatives of the Big Five Powers; the United Kingdom, the United States, the U. S. S. R., France and China, all of which are permanent members, and the six non-permanent members elected by the General Assembly. When a matter is put to the vote at a meeting of the Security Council at least seven members must agree before any action is taken. All five representatives of the Big Five must be included in the seven agreeing members. Should one of these Big Five members disagree then the matter cannot proceed. This is the veto rule which the Big Five Nations can exercise in the Security Council meetings. The Big Five Nations must agree on every action taken by the United Nations. This rule, whereby one nation can prevent action being taken on any measure is the subject of much discussion and disagreement amongst the members of the General Assembly.

The following are a few of the more important and interesting items from the agenda for the General Assembly:—

1. Report of the Secretary-General on the Work of the Organization.
2. Report of the Security Council.
3. Admission of new Members to the United Nations.
4. Election of three non-permanent members of the Security Council.
5. Election of six members of the Economic and Social Council.
6. Election, if required, of elected members of the Trusteeship Council.
7. Report of the Economic and Social Council on the question of Refugees, and consideration of the constitution of the International Refugee Organization.
8. Joint Report of the Secretary-General and of the Negotiating Committee on questions arising out of the transfer of certain assets of the League of Nations.
9. Canadian proposal on measures to economize the time of the General Assembly.
10. Resolution regarding the World Health Organization.
11. Joint Report regarding the establishment of a permanent headquarters site for the U. N.

Canadian U. N. Delegates:

Canada's five delegates to the General Assembly are the Right Hon. L. S. St. Laurent, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; the Hon. Paul Martin, Secretary of State; Mr. John Bracken, Leader of the Progressive Conservative Party; Mr. M. J. Coldwell, Leader of the C. C. F., and Senator Robertson.

UNESCO:

A short account of the structure and aims of UNESCO is given in the booklet, "What is UNESCO?"

Pros and Cons of the United Nations Organization

Editor's Note: The following article has been written for this issue of our Classroom Bulletins in answer to persistent requests for material on the pros and cons of the United Nations organization. No attempt has been made to discuss all of the merits and defects of the United Nations. A few points, both pro and con, have been selected in order to stimulate a critical point of view and to set the student thinking about this important international development. The ideas presented do not represent any official Departmental standpoint on this subject.

The United Nations Organization—Pros

The great leaders of the United Nations who met together from time to time throughout the war to plan their combined offensive against the Axis powers, became convinced that the United Nations should work together for peace in the same spirit of mutual undertaking with which they were prosecuting the war. Mr. Cordell Hull, United States Secretary of State, said on his return from the Moscow conference in 1943: "At the end of the war, each of the United Nations and each of the nations associated with them will have the same common interests in national security, in world order under law, in peace, in the promotion of the political, economic, and social welfare of their respective peoples—in the principles and spirit of the Atlantic Charter and the Declaration of the United Nations. The future of these indispensable common interests depend absolutely upon international co-operation. Hence, each nation's own primary interest requires it to co-operate with the others."

The United Nations' organization was formed and the Charter of the United Nations was drawn up at the first meeting in San Francisco in 1945. Briefly, the purposes of the organization as stated in Article I of the Charter are:—

1. To maintain international peace and security.
2. To develop friendly relations among nations.
3. To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character,
4. To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

The idea of a world organization as set up by the United Nations Charter has not received unanimous approval. Although the United Nations' organization is based on noble principles and purposes and is now supported by fifty-five nations, the student must not blindly assume that the world's problems will be automatically solved. He must examine the organization in the light of its achievements. The United Nations provides the machinery for the maintenance of peace and security. Its success will depend upon the spirit in which it is operated.

Collective Security:

The problem of world peace cannot be solved by any one country for itself. Only a world organization with the confidence of all nations, great and small, is capable of ensuring peace with justice throughout the world. Just as people in every community in Canada live under the rule of law, with police to enforce the law and an elected legislature to make the laws, so must the nations of the world live under the law with an authority whose decisions nations must accept. The Security Council, composed of the world's strongest nations, are the international policemen. This is the strong arm of the law, acting in accordance with the principles and purpose of the Charter of the United Nations that is to maintain order amongst nations. Like the policeman it must be strong in order to enforce obedience to the law, but it must also have the respect and confidence of all nations. Under this protection every country in the world can be freed from fear, from the burden of armaments, from the entanglement of mutual dependence and alliances and the political independence of each country can therefore be increased rather than diminished.

Remove the Causes of War:

A police system alone will not make a peaceful world. Some means of removing the causes of the crime of violence by war, must be found. It has been said that "if goods cannot cross frontiers, armies will." The social evils of want, disease, ignorance, squalor, idleness and inequality must be conquered if we are to have a peaceful world. The campaign against these evils must be fought on a national as well as on an international basis. The fifth point of the Atlantic Charter reads: "They desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field, with the object of securing, for all, improved labour standards, economic adjustment and social security."

The ideals expressed in this statement are to have practical application in the Economic and Social Council which has been set up within the United Nations organization to deal with the economic and social problems of the world community. A chart showing the scope of the Council's interests is shown on page 19. The efforts of the Council will be directed towards assisting those unfortunate countries which have suffered severe war damage to re-establish themselves. Some of the important agencies which will engage in this work are the World Health Organization, the International Refugee Organization and the Food and

Agriculture Organization. "We have it in our power to save millions of lives and to make tens of millions of lives more livable," said the Secretary General of United Nations at a meeting concerning the formation of the World Health Organization. The World Health Organization working on the principle that the health of all peoples is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security, will promote and carry out research work and will circulate the accumulated knowledge of all nations on matters of public health.

Relief on an international basis must be given to those thousands of people in Europe and in the Far East whose homelands by reason of war destruction are unable to supply the necessary food and clothing. UNRRA, which is not a part of the United Nations organization has cared for these people until now but when UNRRA whose humanitarian work has been described as "one of the most glorious pages in the history of war," ceases to function early in 1947 it will be replaced by the International Refugee Organization which in conjunction with the Food and Agriculture Organization will endeavour to ensure that an adequate supply of food is available for the hungry. Lack of food constitutes a threat to the peace of the world which the United Nations intends to preserve. If this problem is solved, the United Nations will have taken an important step towards the maintenance of peace.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is endeavouring to promote peace amongst nations by international co-operation in cultural matters. "Since war begins in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed." UNESCO will try to bring about a better understanding between nations by the interchange of ideas, so that the mistrust and suspicion which often exists between foreigners will be removed and will be replaced by a mutual understanding. By the agencies described and by others now in operation or yet to be organized the Economic and Social Council seeks to build the foundation of world peace.

What is the United Nations Organization?

Critics of the United Nations refer to it as a World Federation or a World State. It is neither of these. Every member state of the United Nations retains its sovereign rights as a self-governing state, free to choose its own form of government. The United Nations is a supernational authority with executive power to arbitrate and if necessary enforce the decisions of this authority according to the purpose and principles of the Charter. Arbitration is to take the place of war. Compare the United Nations organization with our own federal type of government and it will readily be seen that there is little resemblance. So long as there are such radical political differences between various member states a world federation is not practicable. The United Nations was not designed to perform the functions of a Peace Conference nor was it equipped to act as a referee between the Great Powers. It was founded upon the assumption that there would be agree-

ment amongst the permanent members of the Security Council upon major issues. A world federation is not essential for the nations to come to an agreement. The United Nations has not been established for world domination but for world order.

The United Nations Organization—Cons

Nobody will dispute that any action which will ensure world peace, international harmony and universal understanding between peoples is deserving of the wholehearted support and active participation by every person of goodwill. Yet the problem of world peace is not one that will be solved by applying a solution that is attractive in theory, but which in practice will lead the world into further distress. Any action, if it is to be effective, must take into account the stark realities of the problem which has to be solved.

To illustrate this point: It is often stated that the cause of war is nationalism, and, therefore, if we remove the boundaries of nations and have "One World," nationalism will disappear and with it the cause of human strife. In order to achieve this it is proposed that, as an initial step, there must be a World Federation of Nations. Every national government will give up some of its authority to the World Federal Government and gradually this World Government will be given more and more power.

This seems like a very plausible suggestion, particularly when it is pointed out that the World Government, having control of all the armed and police forces of all nations, would not be able to declare war against anybody and, in its own interests, would maintain world peace.

The first point to notice about this suggestion is that the principle is not new. A federation of States was the method used to consolidate Germany. It developed rapidly into a highly centralized dictatorship based upon force and culminating in the Nazi regime. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (the U. S. S. R.) is another example of a federation which, in theory, was established to promote peace based on internationalism instead of nationalism and to provide for the welfare of its people. Actually it has become a complete dictatorship based upon force, intensely nationalistic and aggressive in its attitude to other nations.

Perhaps the best example of a federal union in which the principles of peace and human freedom have been observed most faithfully, is the United States of America. There we have an area with a large population having common interests, speaking one language and possessing all the resources to enjoy a very high standard of living. (The United States is 98% self sufficient). Yet, in point of fact, as the Federal Government has taken over more and more authority, so the problems of the country have increased, accompanied by sectional strife. Conditions in the United States both before and since the recent war, provide evidence of this.

Then again the facts do not bear out the contention that the danger of war will be eliminated as the peoples of countries become more international in their outlook and gain a better understanding of each other. During the last fifty years, the development of steamship, followed by automobile and air transportation, the growth of the press and the use of radio, have resulted in a rapid growth of travel, and an increasing exchange of news and views between nations—in short internationalism has been in the ascendant—yet during this period, there have occurred the two most devastating wars in human history, a series of sanguinary revolutions and widespread economic suffering, despite the fact that the productive resources of the world have never been greater and that never has there existed such a passionate universal longing for peace.

It is plain that we must seek deeper for the causes of war and human strife before we can hope to deal with this problem.

It is generally assumed that war is military conflict. However, in probing the causes of war, we must recognize that guns, bombing planes, tanks, artillery and warships are not the only weapons with which wars are fought. There are such conflicts as economic wars, fought with such weapons as tariffs, embargoes, underselling and generally employing any means for forcing goods into foreign markets while keeping other nations' exports out of the country by trade barriers. Then there are wars of ideas, fought by all the methods of propaganda. And in both instances, it is usually only a question of time before those in conflict resort to force as the last resort to settle the issue.

The fact is that war is a condition arising from one group of persons—such as a nation—attempting to force its will, by all the means it can employ, upon another group which resists and strives to defeat the objective of which they are to be the intended victims.

Once the full significance of this fact is grasped, it will be plain that war, and, in fact, most human strife, arises from men striving to exercise power over their fellow men. Such power can be gained only by getting control of institutions and organizations, such as the institutions of the State, economic institutions and so forth. So we find that the seat of the conflict in the world lies in the relationship of the individual to the various institutions of society, and whether the power of control over the lives of the individuals dependent upon the operations of these institutions is exercised by them or is concentrated in a few hands.

This question of the relationship of the individual to the institutions of society and the disposition of the power of control over human life determines the pattern of the social system. If the social system is organized so that all the institutions of the country exist to serve its individual citizens, and they exercise the power of control over the results they obtain from their institutions, then we have a democracy. If the social system is organized so that individual citizens must conform to the demands made upon them, and the power of control over the people's lives

is centralized in those who operate the institutions, then we have an authoritarian system or a dictatorship. In the first case power over human life is decentralized to the point where the individual has a maximum measure of freedom. In the second case power over human life is centralized to the point where the few dominate the many and can impose their will upon them; in other words the individual is enslaved to those who possess the power to control him.

Now it is significant that during the past fifty years the trend has been away from the democratic and toward the authoritarian philosophy in the progress of human affairs. In finance, in commerce and in industry, the rise of monopolies and cartels. This concentration of power in the economic field has been accompanied by increasing government controls being imposed on people, the rise of dictatorship and the progressive sacrifice of personal freedom so that some political or economic group should exercise more control over what people may do or have. As this centralization of power has proceeded, so humanity has moved rapidly towards World Dictatorship as the pattern of future civilization. And it is significant that as this growing concentration of centralized power has proceeded, bigger and more violent wars, revolutions and economic upheavals have followed.

It is against that background that we must consider the establishment of the United Nations Organization as an instrument for world peace.

The Constitution of the United Nations organization provides for:

1. A General Assembly consisting of representatives of member nations.
2. A Security Council restricted to representatives of eleven member nations with Great Britain, the United States, Soviet Russia, France and China having permanent representation and
3. Various other international agencies.

It should be noted that the representative General Assembly has absolutely no authority. It may "discuss", "recommend", "consider" or "call attention to" any matter. The authority to act is concentrated in the Security Council, and any **one** of the permanent members can veto an otherwise unanimous decision of the others.

The Security Council has the authority to employ economic sanctions (that is to say to boycott any country) or to resort to the force of arms. Its decisions are binding on all member nations. This means that all member nations are subject to the decision of this central world authority in economic and military matters—particularly when it is borne in mind that one of the agencies of the United Nations organization is the World Bank set up under the Bretton Woods Agreement. This World Bank for all practical purposes controls the monetary system of nations which gives those operating the Bank control over the economies of all countries.

Thus we find that economic control on a World Scale backed by the power to enforce decision by means of economic and military sanctions has become concentrated in the hands of a few men. This represents a tremendous centralization of power over human life.

The following questions naturally arise:—

Is there not a danger that this power may be abused?

Bearing in mind that experience has shown that centralization of power leads to strife, is there not a danger of the United Nations organization leading to even more devastating turmoil in the world?

Does not the organization of the United Nations, with the veto power confined to the "Big Five", place the small nations at the mercy of the powerful nations?

Does this not establish the principle of "might is right" which is a violation of our democratic and Christian principles?

How can United Nations organization operate as an organization of "United Nations" when there is such divergent conflict in the ideas of the member nations,—as, for example, between the communist bloc led by Soviet Russia and the democratic bloc led by Great Britain and the United States?

Many other questions arise from considering the foregoing. While it is evident that international co-operation, through a suitable organism, designed for the purpose, is essential, are we tackling this problem realistically?

STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

AT THE CONCLUSION OF ITS THIRD SESSION OCTOBER 1946

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL
18 members elected for 3 years by General Assembly
DECIDES BY SIMPLE MAJORITY OF THOSE PRESENT AND VOTING

**COMMITTEE ON NEGOTIATIONS
WITH SPECIALIZED AGENCIES**

**COMMITTEE ON ARRANGEMENTS
FOR CONSULTATION WITH NON-
GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS**

**AD HOC
COMMITTEES**

COMMISSIONS

**ECONOMIC AND
EMPLOYMENT**
(15 members)

**TRANSPORT AND
COMMUNICATIONS**
(15 members)

FISCAL
(15 members)

STATISTICAL
(12 members)

POPULATION
(12 members)

SOCIAL
(18 members)

HUMAN RIGHTS
(18 members)

**STATUS OF
WOMEN**
(15 members)

**NARCOTIC
DRUGS**
(15 members)

**ECONOMIC
RECONSTRUCTION
OF DEVASTATED
AREAS (Temporary)**

**EMPLOYMENT AND ECONOMIC STABILITY
AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**
(To be established)

**STATISTICAL
SAMPLING**
(To be established)

**FREEDOM OF INFORMATION AND THE PRESS
PROTECTION OF MINORITIES
PROTECTION OF DISCRIMINATION**
(Authorized for establishment)

SUBCOMMISSIONS

SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

**INTERNATIONAL
LABOUR
ORGANISATION**

**UNITED NATIONS
EDUCATIONAL
SCIENTIFIC AND
CULTURAL
ORGANIZATION**

**FOOD AND
AGRICULTURE
ORGANIZATION
OF THE
UNITED NATIONS**

**PROVISIONAL
INTERNATIONAL
ORGANIZATION
OF CIVIL AVIATION**

**INTERNATIONAL
MONETARY
FUND**

**INTERNATIONAL
BANK FOR
RECONSTRUCTION
AND
DEVELOPMENT**

**WORLD HEALTH
ORGANIZATION**
Interim
Commission
functioning

**INTERNATIONAL
REFUGEE
ORGANIZATION**
proposed

**INTERNATIONAL
TRADE
ORGANIZATION**
proposed

**NON-
GOVERNMENTAL
ORGANIZATIONS**

Negotiations to bring these agencies into relationship with the United Nations have already been under way and draft agreements have been forwarded by the Council to the General Assembly for its approval

The Paris Peace Conference, July - October, 1946

Although the last shot of World War II was fired in August, 1945, and victory for the Allies proclaimed, no peace settlements with the defeated countries have, at the time of writing (November, 1946) been achieved. Until such times as Germany and her former allies are fully aware of the terms to which they must subscribe in order to re-establish their countries on a peaceful footing with the rest of the world no new world order can be established nor can the United Nations develop a full peacetime programme.

The hopes of many people attended the general peace conference of twenty-one nations which met at the Luxembourg Palace in Paris on July 29, 1946, to consider the terms of the peace treaties for Italy, Finland, Bulgaria, Hungary and Rumania, five countries which entered the war as Germany's allies, but which in the course of the war broke off with Germany, overthrew their fascist rulers and assisted the Allies to overthrow Hitlerite Germany. It is to the Potsdam Conference and subsequent peace talks at London and Moscow by the council of Foreign Ministers that the origin of the peace treaties presented at the Paris Conference can be traced. Naturally, it was the armistice agreements of 1943-44 with the ex-enemy countries concerned that set the pattern for these draft treaties.

When the conference at Paris began five committees were formed, one for each treaty. Each committee was composed of representatives of the nations that were at war with the enemy country with which the treaty was being made. Decisions were taken by a two-thirds vote. Those who had followed the peace talks at London and Moscow were not surprised at the bluntness of the criticisms and questions hurled by representatives at each other at the conference. The many obstacles and difficulties that lay in the path of the peace makers were most certainly brought to light.

The Peace Treaty for Italy:

Italy surrendered unconditionally in September, 1943, and thereafter gave active assistance to the Allies hoping by so doing, no doubt, to get more favourable peace terms. Italians are gravely disappointed at the terms under discussion.

Reparations to be paid by Italy, partly in the form of produce, over a period of years is \$325,000,000 of which \$100,000,000 is to be paid to Russia. The Italian navy which was to rival that of Britain is reduced to two small battleships and four cruisers. The army is restricted to 250,000 men. The airforce to 350 planes.

Italy renounces all title to her African colonies of Libya, Eritrea and Italian Somaliland, now occupied and administered by Britain. The final disposal of this territory has been postponed for one year. If not returned to Italy these colonies will either become independent, incorporated into neighbouring territory or placed under the trusteeship of the United Nations. The

Dodecanese Islands, inhabited by 150,000 Greeks, given to Italy in 1920 who promised eventually to cede them to Greece, are to be given to Greece.

The Briga-Tenda area near Nice, consisting of five small Alpine boundary areas go to France, and the hydroelectric developments there, are to be shared by France and Italy.

Trieste, a port of the Adriatic, is to become Free Territory. Russia has proposed that Yugoslavia be given control over the customs, currency and foreign affairs of the area. Such a plan is not favoured by the Western powers. The Italo-Yugoslavia frontier, the subject of lengthy discussion, was placed on what was called the French line. The territory gained by Yugoslavia contains about 3,000 square miles and contains a majority of nearly 376,000 Slavs and a minority of 128,000 Italians.

Yugoslavia, piqued at not gaining control over Trieste, left the conference.

The Peace Treaty for Finland:

Finland is required to pay \$300,000,000 in such produce as timber, paper, cellulose and machinery as war reparations. Her land, sea and air forces are to be reduced to 42,000. The U.S.S.R. is to take over the province of Petsamo, Porkhala is to be leased to Russia as a naval base and the Aaland Islands are to be demilitarized. The Allied Control Commission will be withdrawn 18 months after the ratification of the treaty.

The Peace Treaty for Hungary:

Hungary is required to pay \$300,000,000 in reparations to Russia, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. Her armed forces are to be limited. The area known as Northern Transylvania with a predominantly Rumanian population, which Rumania had received from Hungary in 1920 and had been forced to return to Hungary in 1940, is once more to be ceded to Rumania.

The Peace Treaty for Rumania:

Rumania is to pay \$300,000,000 in war reparations to Russia, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. Her armed forces are to be limited. She cedes to Bulgaria the area of Southern Dobruja. This territory has an area of 2,600 square miles and a population of Bulgarians and Turks and rightfully belongs to Bulgaria.

The provinces of Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina with an area of 19,300 square miles and a mixed population of over 3,000,000, of which a little less than one half is Ukrainian and Russian, are ceded to the Soviet Union.

The Peace Treaty for Bulgaria:

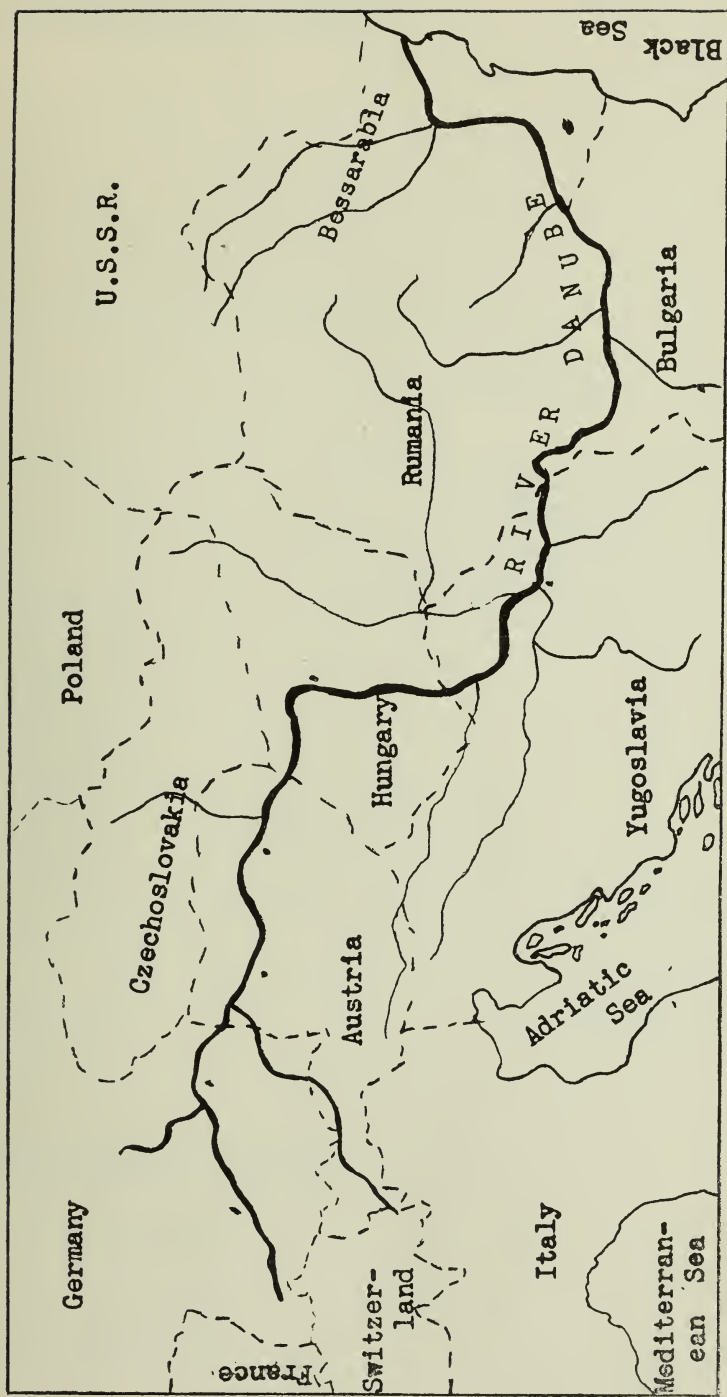
Bulgaria is required to pay \$125,000,000 in war reparations to Greece and Yugoslavia. Her armed forces are to be limited. While she has received Southern Dobruja from Rumania, her frontier with Greece remains a matter of dispute.

Control of the Danube River:

The Paris Conference recommended by a two-thirds vote that the peace treaties should ensure freedom of commerce on the Danube. This recommendation was opposed by Russia. A glance at the map of Europe reveals the Danube as a waterway 1,750 miles long, rising in southern Germany and winding its course through Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Rumania to the Black Sea. On its banks stand the capitals of some of these countries, Vienna, Budapest and Belgrade. This river was one of the main arteries of trade for Hungary, Rumania and Bulgaria. Since 1856 the Danube has been under the control of international commissions and the Danube was open to ships of all nations. Charges were made only for the maintenance of the waterway. World War II halted the work of the commissions. German occupation of Austria and Czechoslovakia and her alliances with other Balkan states gave Hitler (who had extensive plans for the development of this river), complete control of the Danube basin. The Soviet Union by the annexation of Bessarabia has established itself at the mouth of the Danube and regards the Danube river question as one which can be settled by Russia and her Balkan friends and not by an international conference.

At present, this river on which a fleet of 3,000 vessels carried three and a half to four million tons of cargo each year is now obstructed by wrecked bridges, mines and sunken craft. The opening of this river to unrestricted international trade is regarded by the Western powers as vital to European peace.

Although the Paris Conference ended on a discordant note with Yugoslavia leaving the table and Mr. Molotov declaring that his country would ignore the recommendations of the conference, nevertheless, the conference was not a failure. Conflicting views have been fully brought to light and critically discussed. On November 4, the Council of Foreign Ministers of the Big Four will meet in New York to draft the final treaties.



THE DANUBIAN COUNTRIES

The Government of the

THE CON

Establis
in

EXECUTIVE

LEGIS

PRESIDENT

Elected by Electoral College
for 4-year period.

CABINET OF
MINISTERS

Appointed by
the President.

VICE-PRESIDENT

Elected same as
President. He has
no power.

CON

HOUSE OF
REPRESENTATIVES

435 Members electe
by the citizens of th
States for 2-year term
one member for abo
every 300,000. Presid
over by the Speaker.

PRESENT STANDING AFTER THE NO

President

Mr. L.

Senate

De

House of Representatives

De

Speaker

Mr. M.

United States, 1946

UTION

by law

79

TIVE

JUDICIAL

SS

SENATE

96 Members elected
by the citizens for a
6-year term. Presided
over by the Vice-Pres-
ident.

SUPREME COURT

9 Justices appointed by the
President for life.

MEMBER CONGRESSIONAL ELECTIONS.

Truman,	Democrat.
ats, 45,	Republicans, 51.
ats, 188,	Republicans, 247.
Martin,	Republican.

The Domestic and Foreign Policy of Soviet Russia

The Iron Curtain:

Soviet Russia and Russian-occupied Europe are hidden from the public gaze by what the popular press calls an "iron curtain". "Behind the iron curtain" is the catch phrase for articles in our newspapers and magazines which promise to give us the truth about Soviet life. This iron curtain consists not only of well-guarded frontiers but strict censorship of all reports leaving Russia, strict control of the movements of those foreigners who are allowed behind the iron curtain and carefully edited news-broadcasts from Soviet Russia to the world outside. The Soviet government has apparently decided that the peoples of the Soviet Union and the rest of the world shall know only what they consider fit to publish. The confusion of the Social Studies student who wants to take a good look "behind the iron curtain" is still further confounded by the numerous accounts of Soviet life written by reporters who have been sent to Russia to see how bad or how good Russia is. A clear, detailed picture of life in Soviet Russia cannot easily be formed, but the path mapped out for Russia by her leaders can be followed in broad outline.

The New Five Year Plan:

The domestic and economic policy of Soviet Russia has since 1928, excluding the war period, been carefully laid down by the State Planning Commission in a series of Five Year Plans. These plans attempt to lay down in detail the industrial and agricultural production, and cultural development, for the next five years. It is Stalin and his technical advisers who formulate the plan, without reference to a democratically elected legislature. When issued the plan becomes law and the entire resources of the country are directed towards the fulfillment of the plan. Workers must subordinate their individual desires to the wishes of the State. The State will decide how the land is to be cultivated, how the crop is to be disposed of, and whether the worker will work on the land or in the factory.

The first post-war Five Year Plan which went into effect in March, 1946, contains these important aims:—

1. The building up of the heavy industries. The production of pig-iron, steel, coal and oil is to be raised to about three times the 1940 output.
2. Those areas of the Soviet Union which were ravaged by the war are to be rebuilt.
3. The Red Army is to be re-equipped.
4. The rationing system is to be abandoned as soon as possible and more consumer goods are to be made available for the public.

The increased industrial output will require a greater productivity from the industrial worker and larger numbers of skilled technicians. More peasants must be brought into the

factory and agricultural workers will have to increase their output. Russian planned economy has made large scale changes in the lives of the working man. In 1928, the number of wage earners and salaried persons in the Soviet Union was less than 12 million. This figure had been doubled by 1934.

To understand the magnitude of Russia's reconstruction plans it is essential to know something of Soviet war losses. The German army completely or partially destroyed 1,710 Soviet towns and more than 70,000 villages and hamlets, depriving 25,000,000 persons of shelter. Losses in human life amounted to nearly seven million. Damage to transport included the destruction of nine thousand miles of railway track, eighteen hundred bridges, and many thousands of locomotives and freight cars. Until this damage has been made good Russian families will be crowded into the houses left standing. Although there is a dire shortage of every kind of consumer goods, food, clothing, furniture, etc., in Soviet Russia, it is the heavy industries, producing iron, steel, coal and oil, that are at the top of the list and will be given first consideration. What is the reason for this? Stalin explained to the Russian people in his election campaign address in February, 1946, that it was impossible to defend the independence of the Soviet Union without heavy industries.

Soviet Russia's Foreign Policy :

The U.S.S.R. is determined to be all powerful in the east. She has emerged from the war with territorial gains. The Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania have been absorbed by the U.S.S.R. The Polish frontier has been moved westward to a new line, giving Russia a strip of territory. By the peace treaties now under consideration Russia receives territory from Finland and from Rumania. To strengthen her position Soviet Russia is building up along her European frontiers a row of politically and economically dependent or friendly States. These include Poland, Rumania, Bulagria and Yugoslavia. With the exception of Greece and Turkey the whole of the Balkan peninsula is under Soviet influence. Russia is now making a strong bid for control of the Dardanelles, the entrance to the Black Sea, and the highway to Southwest Europe. Ex-enemy territory in Germany, Hungary and Austria now occupied by the Red Army is being subjected to Soviet treatment. Large estates are being carved up into small farms of about 20 acres and peasant farmers settled on them. Collective farming methods as practised in Soviet Russia have also been introduced. How far this will serve to bring the Russian occupied territory into the Soviet camp remains to be seen.

The Soviet Union and the United Nations:

The Soviet Union has opposed most of the important peace proposals of the democratic countries. She has refused to join the conferences of such important U. N. organizations as the Food and Agriculture Organization and UNESCO. She refuses to co-operate in the administration of Germany; in fact she does not

permit the Allies to know how she is administering the Russian zone of Germany. By this apparent lack of understanding, the United Nations have been split into two camps, with the U.S.S.R. and the smaller countries who support her, now called the Eastern Bloc on one side, and the United States, the United Kingdom and other democratic countries making up the Western Bloc on the other.



The Civil War in China

The civil war in China drags on, punctuated by temporary truces during which the rival leaders confer with United States' General Marshall, who has been sent to China to mediate between the Nationalist party and the Communist party. Chiang Kai-Shek, leader of the Nationalist army is attempting to beat the Communists into submission. He has already advanced north into Manchuria and has recently captured a Communist stronghold at Kalgan. One may well ask why the Chinese after 14 years of foreign invasion and 8 years of uninterrupted war, want to fight amongst themselves over a problem that must finally be settled at the conference table. This civil war in China is not merely an internal split between two political parties. Dr. Wellington Koo, ambassador to the United States, sums up the situation with the words, "It is the challenge of a minority party with an independent army against the authority of the established Government in the hope of gaining political control of the country."

Can these differences between the Nationalist and Communist parties be settled peaceably? The terms offered to the Communists by the Nationalists are thirteen of the forty seats in the State Council whose task will be to run the country until a new constitution has been adopted, and the incorporation of the Communist army into a reorganized national army on the basis of eighteen Communist divisions to fifty Nationalist divisions. If this or a similar peaceful agreement can be accepted and, a compromise reached between the two parties, which will give adequate consideration to the problems of the masses of poverty stricken peasants then dreams of a united, free and prosperous China may be realized.

Radar in Peacetime

It is interesting to note that Radar, which played such an important part in the recent war, has now a peacetime role. Work will shortly begin on the world's largest radar set, designed by United Kingdom scientists for the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board at Liverpool. When the set is completed and mounted on a 100-foot tower at Gladstone Dock, Liverpool will be the first port in the world to be governed by radar.

At present, many thousands of dollars are lost through bad weather in harbours. Missing a tide costs an average cargo vessel from \$800 to \$3,200 and storms and fog sometimes result in the missing of several tides. In addition, there is always considerable danger to life and property when vessels lose their bearing in foul weather. The Liverpool radar set will minimize these hazards by giving the position of all vessels within a radius of thirty miles, allowing pilots to be guided through bad weather and informed by radio of the whereabouts of other ships or obstructions of any kind.

The set has a giant screen more than ten feet square, where as the usual screen now in use is only about one foot square. Instead of one cathode ray, it will have four separate tubes, to allow a detailed view of a particular area to be presented.

The Mersey Docks and Harbour Board now operates a salvage vessel equipped with radar, the only port authority with such a vessel. This ship has located buoys set adrift, and, navigating itself entirely by radar, has detected floating mines so that they could be destroyed by mine sweepers.

If the set on Gladstone Dock is a success, which it gives every promise of being, other big ports in Britain will be equipped with radar, and manoeuvres in harbours will become much safer and cheaper.

WORLD AFFAIRS

The Magazine for Students of Current Events, in the Classroom.

Magazines and newspapers now play an important part in the classroom. Of those recommended for students of Social Studies, World Affairs, with a circulation of 12,000 copies in Alberta, is the one most generally read. Because of its wide use, World Affairs has been selected for an analysis of its contents to determine which sections of this magazine are most helpful to those studying Social Studies in one of the high school grades. (In those schools where Senior Scholastic or some other periodical supplies the current events material, a similar analysis might be undertaken by the teacher.) Time devoted to the study and discussion of current events in the classroom is limited so that selection is necessary, whatever magazines or newspapers are read. The background of knowledge provided by our study of historical events is essential to our understanding of events that are taking place around us today. With this historical knowledge we are less at the mercy of propaganda spread by the press, the films and the radio. The current events that will have most meaning for us are those which are closely related to our classroom work in Social Studies. It is not suggested that our interest in current events should be narrowed down to fit in with our Social Studies courses, but rather that we train ourselves to detect the links between the past and the present. The following items from the September, October, November and December issues of World Affairs have special reference to the Social Studies courses. They have been picked out to guide and help the young reader. This selection is not intended to be prescriptive or exclusive in any way. In the list given below the page reference is to World Affairs and the Unit reference in brackets to the Social Studies Programme of Studies.

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HOUSING

(Unit XI — Social Studies 1)

(a) Present Housing Situation

Since the end of the Second Great War the world has embarked on a programme of building activity never before equalled in history. The rebuilding of war-ravaged and bombed-out areas is in itself a tremendous task; but quite apart from this, there has been an influx of population into urban centres, a severe lag in building activity, and a progressive deterioration of existing dwellings. All these factors have contributed to the present widespread home shortage, and necessitate housing schemes on a very large scale.

Canada is not yet burdened with the slum problem which afflicts the United States and many European countries; but the beginnings of the problem are evident in many badly congested areas in which houses are crowded in chaotic fashion, people are crowded in them and slum conditions are in the making.

It is a fact that thousands of Canadians today are obliged to live in over-crowded dwellings, with poor sanitation, inadequate living and sleeping space and a depressing environment. Such conditions are known inevitably to breed ill-health and delinquency. Wartime conditions have aggravated the evil in many towns and cities and as a result, families are found living in garages, attics, basements and trailers.

It must not be concluded, however, that potential or actual slum conditions are confined to urban areas. Surveys have shown that similar conditions can be found in rural areas, where the general standard of living accommodation is considered lamentably low.

Canada is a young country, and perhaps because of this fact she has lagged behind some other nations in the organized provision of housing, especially for the low-income families. But it must be borne in mind that although several older nations have initiated and carried out many notable housing programmes, they were forced to act in the interests of slum clearance, and satisfactory alternatives to their slums had to be provided.

The situation prevailing in Canada up to 1935 was that slum clearance was largely an accident of business expansion. The older dwellings in the heart of a community were torn down to make way for new factories or business premises, and the residents were obliged to move out without any provision being made for their accommodation.

Prior to 1935, no organized effort was made to provide good quality homes for purchase or rental by people of small means. It is true that occasionally an enterprising builder would erect a small group of homes to fill the evident need but generally speaking, the custom was to build for the high and middle-income groups. As these moved to the new buildings, the lower-income groups moved into their second or third-hand accommodation.

Even today, the occupancy of "cast-off" dwellings by these people is recognized by housing experts as inevitable, since the primary object is to house as many families as possible in the shortest time.

The urgency of this situation was revealed as long ago as 1941, when the Census returns show that in 27 Canadian cities of over 30,000 population, 28% of all households were overcrowded. In 17 cities of similar population, more than 75% of the families were tenants. They reported living quarters in states of disrepair, with inadequate or non-existent plumbing, poor heating and cooking arrangements. In Alberta's farm homes, only 5.5% had electric light, 4.3% had bathrooms, 2.5% had sanitary toilets and 10.6% had furnace heating.

Today, thousands of returning war veterans, who have acquired families since they left civilian life, are vainly seeking living accommodation. When they left for the war the housing situation was bad. On their return it was infinitely worse, since little home building was possible during the war. Now the war is over, and the building industry is hampered by shortages of skilled labour and materials, brought about by the great demand for homes. It is estimated by housing authorities that Canada needs 160,000 homes to fill her needs. The provision of 80,000 in the next few years will bridge the gap, and the objective of 60,000 homes has been set for 1947 production.

(b) Government Participation in Housing

The original governmental housing scheme in Canada was established by the Province of Ontario in 1913. It called for municipal participation, but only the City of Toronto took advantage of the Act. The scheme produced 330 homes.

In 1919, after the First Great War, Canada experienced a housing shortage, and this in turn produced much unrest. A report by the Mathers Commission led to the War Measures Act being invoked so as to permit housing loans to Provincial Governments. The Provinces in turn were to lend the funds to municipal governments for housing. Mismanagement and inefficiency—due largely to lack of experience—were charged against the administrators. Nevertheless, 6,242 homes were built in 179 municipalities.

During the 1920's, new immigrants poured into Canada, but little was done to provide housing accommodation for the rapidly growing population. There was general mistrust of government participation, and speculators were not interested greatly in the hazardous market of low-cost dwellings.

Following several years of depression and unemployment a Parliamentary Committee in 1935 recommended a National housing programme as a means to ease unemployment and clear away some rapidly developing slum areas, which were proving costly to maintain. Out of this report came the first Dominion measure to tackle the housing problem on a large scale.

The Dominion Housing Act, 1935, provided for Dominion loans at 3% to certain financial institutions. The loans were limited to 20% of the value of land and property built thereon. The buyer would put down 20%, and the financial institution furnished the remaining 60%. Buyers' loans were to bear 5% interest, and to be paid off over a period of 20 years.

It will be seen that the actual loan to a borrower was 80% of the value. Previously, 60% had been the usual portion granted. The lowered interest rates and method of paying back the loan also were significant steps toward making home ownership possible.

Curiously, the results were disappointing. In Alberta, no loans were made because of the withdrawal of financial and mortgage institutions from the lending field in this Province. Nevertheless, the act paved the way for later legislation, and it was undoubtedly a step in the right direction.

In 1937, the Home Improvement Loans Guarantee was passed. Intended primarily to provide loans for the rehabilitation and enlarging of existing homes, the Act nevertheless made it possible for many small-income families to become owners. They would invest their funds in a building which they occupied before completion. Occupancy qualified them for a Home Improvement Loan, which permitted completion of the dwelling.

National Housing Act, 1938

In 1938 the National Housing Act was passed and a National Housing Administration was established in the Department of Finance. Part I of the new Act continued the provisions of the 1935 Act, but also authorized loans up to 90% for homes costing less than \$2,500. This meant, in effect, that an even lower equity, or down payment, was required by the borrower than formerly.

Part II provided for low-rental projects, and \$30,000,000 was set aside for the use of local authorities or limited dividend housing concerns. The former could borrow up to 90% of value at 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ %, and the latter were offered 80% of value at 2%. Not a single dollar of this money was ever used to provide low rental housing. Nor was any administrative machinery set up to promote the scheme. The programme called for participation by three levels of government—Dominion, Provincial and Municipal, and perhaps because of the conditions expressed in respect of provincial guarantees and local tax limitations on any property constructed, no enthusiasm was shown. On the other hand, the absence of interest in the proposal might be attributed to the belief that Canadians prefer to own, rather than rent, their housing accommodation.

Part III of the Act was a tax-compensation measure. The Dominion offered to pay one year's full taxes to any municipal government which sold a building lot for \$50 as a small home site. In the second year the Dominion offered to pay 50% of the taxes, and in the third year, 25%. The municipal governments were not enthusiastic. Few small home owners benefitted.

The Act did much to stabilize and lower interest rates on mortgage capital, and it provided the first real proving ground for organized housing on a national scale. It was, at least, an effort to act on the spur of a warning issued by the Parliamentary Committee in 1935: "A national emergency will soon develop if the building of dwellings be not greatly increased. The formation, institution and pursuit of a policy of adequate housing should be accepted as a social responsibility."

Wartime Housing

The unprecedented population shifts brought about by the war demonstrated the truth of the warning. Hundreds of thousands of newcomers flocked to the strategic centres of war production and military training, and hundreds of thousands could not be accommodated properly in the already overflowing communities.

By 1941 the situation had become so acute that for the first time in Canada's history, a senior government went directly into the business of building homes. There was established a Crown Company under the name of Wartime Housing Limited. Its purpose was to provide temporary housing in congested areas. The houses were largely of the non-basement, non-permanent type, without interior plaster.

Special agreements between the governing bodies concerned had to be drawn up to accommodate the Wartime Housing Programme. On urban land served by utilities, a typical agreement between the Crown and local authorities would include payment of \$1 for the building lot and a fixed sum on account of taxes. The Crown reserved the right to sell the property at any time, but would indemnify the municipal body if such sale were accomplished in 8 or 15 years. After 15 years the local body would have an option to buy the property at about \$1,000 per unit. Subsequent sale would, in theory, reimburse for tax loss.

In the experience of most municipalities, the revenue from such properties has been small compared with that from other types of building. It is estimated in some cities that the general taxpayers are subsidizing each wartime house to the extent of \$10 monthly.

As their name suggests, Wartime Houses were intended to fill a wartime need. Since the end of the war, however, there has always been an insistent demand for more of this accommodation, and early hopes that most of the units would be torn down or modernized have now faded. Wartime Houses are an example of subsidized rental housing, introduced as an emergency measure only.

The National Housing Act, 1944

During the war years much thought was given to the post-war period, in an effort to appraise conditions and prepare for a smooth transition from a war to a peace economy. It was natural

that Housing should receive intensive study in this connection, and all across Canada various reconstruction bodies dealt with the topic in their reports.

The most important of these was the Curtis Report, prepared and submitted by a sub-committee of the Dominion Advisory Committee on Reconstruction. Out of the Curtis Report emerged the National Housing Act, 1944, to which Royal Assent was given on August 15.

Passage of this Act launched Canada on a great new programme of housing. The new measure drew closer to the ideal, inasmuch as it made provision for 90% loans for homes up to \$4,000 in value. This forward step, however, was hampered somewhat by the rise in building costs. Nevertheless, the general income level had risen too, and ownership was made available to many thousands of people.

Once again low-rental housing was dealt with. Part II of the Act provided for agreements between the Dominion and limited dividend corporations. The agreements incorporated features concerning controlled rentals, profits and dividends, and any property built as a result of the agreement must be managed and maintained by the lending institution. Nor can it be sold without official approval.

There were 90% loans provided for, and interest was set at 3%. New housing, rehabilitation and slum clearance projects all come within the scope of the Act. To date not a great deal has been accomplished, although Housing Enterprises Limited has inaugurated a number of rental schemes.

Part III deals with rural housing, and is designed to bring to farm and rural areas the benefits of Part I, from which they were previously, in practice, excluded.

Part IV revives the former Home Improvement Plan by providing for loans under government guarantee for the rehabilitation or extension of existing dwellings. It is intended to encourage farmers and rural dwellers to modernize their homes either by the addition of sanitary and other conveniences, or the extension of dwellings to healthful proportions.

Part V deals with housing research and community planning. It is designed to permit continued research into new building techniques, lighting, heating, design and the utilization of new building materials. A number of such research projects is currently being conducted.

Veterans Land Act

This legislation was designed to assist certain veterans to purchase homes on suburban acreage, as alternative to the purchase of farms, the initial objective of the Act. Although not designed as a housing measure as such, it nevertheless has become one in fact, since the drastic home shortage has forced offi-

cials to broaden the field of applicants. Many veterans prefer a suburban home to a city tenement or worse, and have moved to acreage development under V. L. A.

Total Construction—Publicly Assisted Housing

1935—Dominion Housing Act.	4,899 homes.
1938—National Housing Act.	21,414 homes.
Wartime Housing.	30,000 homes.
Veterans Land Act.	3,819 homes.
1944—National Housing Act.	16,211 homes to Sept. 30, '46.

Integrated Housing

As previously noted, the provision of non-permanent housing such as Wartime Housing Limited has supplied cannot be truthfully termed real housing. Nobody wanted that type of housing except those who had no homes of their own. But circumstances forced action at a time when there were no alternatives.

In 1946, however, a new type of housing project was initiated. This was known as integrated Housing. Under Integrated Housing the local builder can build standard types of housing to plans and specifications supplied by Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, the body which administers the National Housing Act. On completion, the houses are sold at certain set prices, and the builders' profits are limited to a standard percentage of cost. If a veteran does not buy any specific home, the Dominion will purchase it at the set price after twelve months.

A variety of home types have been designed for this programme, and builders in some areas have shown that by careful organization of labour and materials, together with undelayed deliveries of supplies, they can complete them at moderate prices.

Encouraged by the early success of these homes, the Dominion, in co-operation with the building industry and other governments, is planning a program of 50,000 Integrated Houses for 1947. Local builders commenced a survey of material needs in 1946, local governments are being asked to service blocks of land, and stockpiles of materials are being assembled across Canada. It is felt that Integrated Houses will fill the need for thousands of moderately priced homes, and pave the way for a return to normal home building conditions.

Co-operative Housing

Housing for workers by co-operative methods has been successfully demonstrated in Nova Scotia and Alberta. In Nova Scotia a Provincial Housing Commission was established to lend money to limited dividend housing companies who would provide homes for people whose incomes were not more than \$1,200 per annum, and who could not participate in the National Housing Act, 1938.

At Sydney Mines, where extensive credit union and co-operative activity had wrought great economic changes, a group of partly employed miners pooled their resources to start a co-oper-

active settlement of home owners on productive home units. The land was given to them by a local clergyman. They dug their basements, erected the frames, and when their small funds were exhausted, approached the Provincial Housing Commission with a request for financial assistance.

In view of their intelligent effort, the miners received sympathetic consideration from the Housing Commission, although such groups as theirs were not contemplated when the Act was framed. The loans were granted and work was completed. When the miners moved their families into the new, comfortable homes, they found that ownership of home and a large piece of land would cost them, with taxes, little more than \$12 a month. They had been paying rents of \$26 a month for dilapidated company homes. The settlement was named Tompkinsville, after the clergyman who prompted the miners. It has become world-famous as an example of self-help and co-operation. Some 20 other settlements of this nature have since been established.

In Alberta, Part II of The Building Associations Act provides for the establishment of co-operative savings and loan associations to assist housing. Such groups operate in Calgary and Edmonton. The Associations collect regular savings from members and investors, and lend these savings to member borrowers for home building. An interesting feature of the loan contract is that each borrower undertakes to save, over 20 years, a sum equal to that borrowed. Thus the savings are increased as houses are built, and more money is available for new homes. The borrowers' savings help to create a personal insurance fund against adversity in later years. They earn dividends each year, and these are added to the savings of the individual members. After 20 years, a borrower who has built a \$4,000 home with \$1,000 of his own and a loan of \$3,000, will have paid off his loan and earned dividends which increase his cash holdings to about \$5,000. Interest is charged at 5%, and dividends are usually 4%. All earnings are returned to the members as dividends on their shares; and all have an equal voice in the management of the Association.

Co-operative Building Associations are recognized as one of the safest and most equitable types of mortgage institution in the field of housing. Their initial programmes are necessarily slow, but they gain momentum as each new home is built, and it is likely they will play an important part in future housing.

Provincial Housing Assistance

As a means to assist in the temporary housing of veterans and their families, the Alberta Government initiated a joint Provincial--Municipal scheme to use former military hutments as emergency shelter. In Edmonton, notable success has attended the effort. The huts are divided into comfortable, fully modern apartments and have proved to be quite popular, especially among married students attending University. Further assistance has been given by the Province in the salvaging of building materials from military centres, and the importation of plumbing fixtures for veterans' housing.

(c) Present Problems of Housing

The imposition of rental controls and regulations governing the eviction of tenants was a war measure which pointed directly at the problems of housing. In times of scarce housing accommodation, demand forces a rise in rentals, and refusal to pay increased rent often results in a tenant's eviction.

The question of rent payments has long been a topic of major concern to housing workers. One school of thought believes that never, at any time, can the bulk of low-income families afford sufficient rent, and they advocate a scheme of state subsidized rentals by which the general taxpayers will pay the difference between what the tenant can afford and the landlord must have.

On the other hand, there are those who maintain that every family can afford to own a home that his rent would buy, if some means were available to turn rent payments into purchase payments. These authorities stress that tenantry is not a natural condition of man; that the urge to own his own home is a natural right which must not be thwarted. Moreover, they point out, ownership brings security of tenure and an equity of value in the dwelling, whereas tenantry knows no security, and after a lifetime of rent payments a tenant may still be evicted, since he has no equity in the home.

The example set by the miners of Tompkinsville is perhaps a good guide. These men paid rent of \$26 a month. When they built their homes, their payments were reduced to \$12 a month. Naturally, costs were reduced by the amount of hired labour they saved. But the important point is that by turning their rent into purchasing power, they became owners. By building their homes on larger lots, they made their homesites productive, since they could raise vegetables, fruits, chickens and other foodstuffs to feed their families.

There are some interesting statistics in connection with housing. For instance, it is a rule that the maximum cost of a house should not exceed $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the annual income; that the maximum payments for purchase or rent should not exceed one-fifth of income. Thus, an income of \$1,200 a year would warrant the ownership of a \$3,000 home, and the monthly payments should be \$20.

From these figures it is evident that if \$20 a month is available for purchase or rent, in the latter case, the renter should be able to live in a \$3,000 home. But another rule of housing is that a landlord must be assured of 1% per month, or 12% annually, on his investment. Thus, the rented home worth \$3,000 will be expected to return not \$20, but \$30 a month, or \$360 a year, which is \$120 a year more than the occupier should pay if he were buying a similar house.

Suppose a young married couple commence renting at \$20 a month at the age of 20. When they are 60 they will have paid a total of \$9,600 in rent, and still have no security of tenure, or any equity in the dwelling. If, on the other hand, they commence

to buy their home at 20, they will complete the payments in 20 years, and still have the savings of another 20 years in which to care for taxes and depreciation.

The ideal home ownership plan would provide safeguards against loss of equity by death or adversity and would make it easier in the first place for people to assume ownership. Thus, the lowering of initial payments to 10% or even 5% in very small homes; the paying off of loans so that each payment reduces the principal; the lowering of interest rates to an absolute service minimum and the establishment of an integral system of mortgage cancellation insurance, by which the death of a family head would not result in loss of home through loss of income, are features which such a housing plan would contain.

New Materials and Techniques

In recent years, much publicity has been given to prefabricated homes and people have been led to expect great innovations through the employment of new techniques and new materials.

Unfortunately, prefabrication has to stand one basic test before it can become firmly established: Will it produce good homes faster and cheaper? The answer, to date, is not in the affirmative.

Urban houses are not completely self-contained units, no matter how far they are set apart. Connected with each is an intricate network of gas, water, power and sewage lines which serves the whole urban area. Whether a house is built in Montreal and shipped to a site in Edmonton, or built on the site in Edmonton, it still must make connection with the various service lines. To date, the actual building of British Columbia prefabricated homes in Alberta cities has not produced homes any faster, nor have prices to the owner been reduced.

A bungalow which was turned out of a Vancouver factory at \$1320 f.o.b. Vancouver, could not be sold in Edmonton at less than \$5,000. Freight charges, trucking charges, cost of lot, cost of basement, installation of wiring and plumbing, lighting and insulation, all added to the total. Buyers were not numerous and prefabrication made no great change in the housing picture.

The fact is that prefabrication is not new. In the early days of American colonization English builders sent over to the New England settlements completely prefabricated dwellings of frame and masonry construction. Some of them are still standing. Prefabrication, too, may conflict with local building codes, and the outlook for this type of dwelling does not appear to be bright. It seems that in their choice of home, most owners are conservative as to the method of building, and the materials used.

In the United States several large corporations have spent millions of dollars on prefabrication techniques. But pending large-scale approval of their products by the occupants, it is safe to say that modern prefabrication is still in the experimental stage. Efforts have been made to compare the cheapness of

mass-produced cars with the high cost of individually built dwellings. The fact is that, regardless of the mass-production techniques employed, most dwelling require substantial amounts of on-site labour in Canada—and what is more important, people seem to prefer the individualized house.

The Modern Home

Homes are dearer today than they were in 1939. But they are not dearer than they were in 1928, prior to the great depression. Today's homes are better homes. Since 1936, almost every new home has been insulated, has numerous outlets for electrical power, has a more effective and less cumbersome heating system, and is fitted with a modern kitchen with built-in fixtures. In Alberta, especially, the new homes appearing are considered by Dominion officials to be the best of their type in Canada at the prices they bring.

It is possible that the millions being spent on housing research will bring some reduction in cost; but regardless of any progress made in this connection, the fundamental economics of home ownership will remain unchanged. The stumbling block of the down payment will prevent many from becoming owners, and its removal will prove the greatest incentive to home ownership Canada has yet known.

(d) Housing in Other Lands

England's Industrial Revolution was also a housing revolution, in that for the first time in that nation's history, the great bulk of its people were withdrawn from a pastoral environment and herded into warrens of drab, monotonous rows of workmen's dwellings bereft of individuality or attraction. Grasping landlords, with no thought of the terrible havoc they were wreaking in human lives and souls, cared nothing for the conditions they had created. The employers of labour cared less, since they were concerned mainly with having available a cheap, handy supply of labour of all ages from childhood to old age, and propertyless tenants were obviously the chief source of that supply.

As the concentration of industry proceeded, more millions of these hapless people were attracted by the lure of wages, and were herded into many-storied tenements where sanitation, light and living conveniences were noticeably absent. Home life became a drab and disagreeable affair, and was matched by conditions inside the factories, the shipyards, the forges and the mines. Long hours of work, poor food and unhealthy surroundings exacted a terrible toll as epidemics and accidents thinned the ranks of the poor workers.

Robert Owen, a factory owner, was probably first of the employers to attempt alleviation. He planned a community of semi-urban, productive home units and in fact, financed an expedition to America to put this into practice. It was a failure, since it was claimed to have been based on wrong principles. In 1851 Parliament moved to provide better housing for workers, but very

little progress was made until 1919, when the Housing and Town Planning Act was passed. By this legislation, the onus of providing housing was thrown on the local authority, and "council houses", as they are known, began to appear. This method is still the most extensively practised in Great Britain, but builders complain that too much governmental participation in state-subsidized rental schemes has cramped the home ownership movement. It is estimated that a total of 7,253,000 houses will be needed by 1951 to care for the country's needs. Some important British housing programmes are known as the Addison Scheme, 1919; the Chamberlain Scheme, 1923; and the Wheatley Scheme, 1924. Subsidies were granted for slum clearance and also for the building of rental homes for rural workers. A training programme for building workers was initiated after the Second Great War. It is estimated that 4 of every 5 homes now built in Great Britain are governmental projects.

Continental Europe

Slum clearance and rehousing schemes similar to those of Great Britain have become an important governmental function in continental European countries. It is noticeable that most European cities stress the building of modern apartment blocks to house their concentrated populations. In Sweden, much headway was made. But perhaps the most outstanding achievement in that country was the Stockholm Magic House plan. This was initiated by the municipal government.

Under this plan, the municipality brought large tracts of land to remove it from the speculative market. Then a number of house designs was drawn up, the land was divided into generous lots, and a municipal prefabrication, or ready-cutting plant was put into operation.

Workers were then invited to participate by building their own homes with the ready-cut parts, on land leased for 30 years with an option of renewal. The labour of the workers was counted as part of the down payment required, so that only \$80 or so in actual cash was required to become an owner. In a few years 50,000 low-income workers had taken advantage of the plan, and were comfortably settled in their homes.

Elsewhere in Sweden a type of co-operative apartment dwelling was constructed, owned and operated by the society of which tenants were members.

Housing in U. S. A.

In the United States, chaotic conditions reigned during the depression of the 1930's, and thousands of home owners were faced with loss of home and property rights. After many uncoordinated attempts to relieve the situation, the Federal Government eventually worked out a series of programmes which removed many of the difficulties. The Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Federal Housing Administration, the Farm Security Administration and the United States Housing Authority were offi-

cial bodies charged with the provision of housing. These eventually were grouped under the National Housing Agency, and various administrative changes were made.

Under the National Housing Act, 1934, FHA introduced a scheme of insured mortgages which was instrumental in stabilizing the investment field and lowering rates, in addition to inserting amortization features in loan contracts. This plan protected, and thus encouraged, investors of mortgage capital. In 1937 the U. S. Housing Act was passed to provide for low rental housing, and thus continue the work formerly carried on by the Emergency Administration of Public Works since 1933.

United States housing measures are similar to Canada's, but the problems to be faced are much greater. For, besides new housing and slum replacement, it is estimated that from nine to twelve million non-farm homes will be required by 1956.

(e) Housing in Our Community—Town Planning, Housing, Health

A visit to any Western city will show in too many cases the results of bad planning and community development. Industrial and business premises encroach on residential areas, shrubbery and tree growth is negligible, and new building appears to follow a haphazard, ugly and depressing pattern.

On the other hand it is possible to find, even in some smaller towns, areas in which the creation and preservation of beauty has been a strong factor in their development. Streets are broad and conveniently located, park space is evident, and the placement of industrial buildings is such as to keep them as inconspicuous as possible.

Town planning, as it is called for want of a better term, is closely allied with housing. In most urban centres zoning regulations are established so as to control the erection of business and industrial sites. Unfortunately, the pressure of business interests sometimes results in the regulations being amended, and ugly structures begin to appear in neighbourhoods which formerly were solely residential.

Older cities are known to show rings of growth. These are caused by the expansion of industrial sites and the departure of former residents to better locations, where eventually the growth process is repeated. The result is that some residences are hemmed in by factory and business sites, and they eventually become slums.

Slums are expensive. Sometimes a large city finds it economical to destroy whole areas and move the inhabitants to new rental homes. The savings come from decreased crime and disease in the new homesites. In Cleveland, Ohio, a survey showed that fire, police and health protection in a slum area cost the taxpayers \$1,356,978 a year, and private charities poured an additional \$490,836 into the same area. Yet the total tax revenue from that area, even if all collected, was only \$225,035. The cost

in human lives, degradation and misery was incalculable. In that slum, police protection cost \$11.50 per capita, and elsewhere in the city, only \$4.37.

In Toronto a comparison was made between a slum and a good residential district. In the slum, the death rate from tuberculosis was 42.0 per 100,000, compared with 22.0 in the good district. Poliomyelitis cases in the slum were 228 per 100,000, and only 71 in the good district.

Garden Cities

In the days prior to the Industrial Revolution, with its heavy concentration of industry and humanity in small areas, there was a rural atmosphere permeating all urban centres. It was in an attempt to revise this ideal that the Garden City was first proposed. The theory behind this concept is that the urban centre be limited as to size and industrial expansion. There is a fringe of agricultural land outside the city limits which must be preserved. Supporters of the idea sometimes maintain that a population of 100,000 is the safest and most economical maximum, after which new industries should start up elsewhere.

Some experiments have been made in this field since Ebenezer Howard first put forth his ideas in 1898, and several successful ventures in England, especially those promoted by employers of labour, such as Rowntree and Lever, have achieved wide fame.

Today there is a strong trend toward the neighbourhood unit as the basic fraction of an urban community. The unit is patterned on the old medieval town, in which the parish was the head and centre of spiritual life. It is felt that the creation of these units to conform with the topography, and with the inclusion of walkways for children going to school, will do much to create a more beautiful urban environment. Adequate park and play areas, shopping centres, and outside traffic arteries will be integral parts of such a unit.

Town planning, or community development, as it is sometimes known, is intended to influence the healthy and efficient growth of the community. Its aims are to provide wholesome and spacious sites and surroundings; a well-balanced distribution of buildings and open spaces; the orderly development and architectural treatment of public and private structures; adequate streets, walkways, highways; and efficient transit and terminal facilities for land and water approaches.

In such a community, the homes would conform to absolute rules as to minimum space per person. Thus, one person would have not less than 70 square feet; 2 persons 110 square feet, and so on by a special formula devised in the interests of home efficiency and health.

Housing is becoming one of the more important features of our daily lives. But intelligent interest, careful development and a persistence in striving for the housing ideal will be necessary for years to come if Canadians are to become the best housed people on the North American continent.

Prominent Names in Current Affairs

- Hon. L. S. St. Laurent—Secretary of State for Canada; Chairman of Canadian U. N. Delegates.
- Mr. N. Robertson—Canadian High Commissioner for Britain.
- Dr. G. F. McNally—Chancellor of University of Alberta.
- Mr. C. Attlee—Prime Minister of Britain.
- Mr. E. Bevin—British Foreign Minister.
- Field Marshall, The Right Hon. J. C. Smuts—Prime Minister of the Union of South Africa; Minister of External Affairs; Chairman of the U. N. Delegates.
- Mr. B. A. Baruch—United States Representative on Atomic Energy Commission.
- General Marshall—United States Secretary of State.
- Mr. W. A. Harriman—United States Secretary of State.
- Mr. W. Austin—United States Chief Delegate to the U. N.
- Mr. H. Evatt—Foreign Minister of Australia.
- Mr. Trygve Lie—Secretary General of U. N.
- Mr. P. H. Spaak—Belgium Minister of Foreign Affairs and President of the U. N. General Assembly.
- Mr. V. M. Molotov—Soviet Foreign Minister.
- Mr. A. Gromyko—Soviet Delegate on the Security Council.
- Pandit Nehru—President of the Interim Government of India.
- Mr. M. A. Jinnah—President of the Indian Moslem League.
- Generalissimo Chiang Kai-Shek—President of the Chinese Republic.

Recent Cabinet Changes at Ottawa

- Hon. Louis Stephen St. Laurent—Secretary of State for External Affairs.
- Hon. James Garfield Ilesley—Minister of Justice and Attorney General.
- Hon. Douglas C. Abbott—Minister of Finance.
- Hon. Brooke Claxton—Minister of National Defence.
- Hon. Paul Martin—Minister of Health and Welfare.
- Hon. Colin William George Bishop—Secretary of State.

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